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THE COMMON SCHOOL AND THE STATE[1]

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The wisdom of Plato is nowhere more clearly proved than in the introductory passage to his treatise on education in the *Republic,* in which he makes, in a seemingly casual way, this profound remark: "In every work the beginning is the most important part, especially in dealing with anything young and immature." He then proceeds to discuss the system of education for his ideal state. There are two points to note: first, that he begins his discussion with the children; and, second, that he emphasizes the importance of the elementary instruction, and discusses with the greatest care its constituent parts. Nowhere are we permitted to lose sight of the central point of his system, that the children and their education are the fundamental units on which he bases his hopes of righteousness, happiness, and perpetuity for the state.

No educational reformer or theorist has got beyond the position of Plato, and in any system of general or popular education we must, consciously or unconsciously, pay our respects to him. Looking at the matter in a theoretical way, there are probably few here tonight who would venture to gainsay the view of Plato. The majority would accept it as educational gospel. On the other hand, there are few here perhaps who have given themselves concern that it should have practical realization, or

[1] President's address, Iowa State Teachers' Association, December 26, 1906.

who have considered how remote our practice is from our approved ideal.

Of course, this state and others have their public-school systems. Money has been given generously for school purposes, and there is, no doubt, warrant for a good deal of enthusiasm over what we have done for the education of our children. But we may safely leave it to the politician "to point with pride," as he eloquently reviews the benefits of free and universal education. It is the serious business of the earnest student of educational conditions to state as clearly as possible what the facts really are.

The state seems to have given its chief attention to the higher grades of secondary education rather than to the lower ones. The conspicuous building in the village or town is usually the high school, and the special provisions, if any, for the cultivation of the practical interests of the youth, are there and not in the lower grades. It would be anomalous for anyone to call attention to a rural-school building and grounds as evidence of the state's generosity in education. The rural school, or the grade school, rarely shows evidence of personal concern on the part of anybody for the children. The stream of revenue from the funds apportioned for educational purposes is reduced to innumerable small rivulets before it reaches the lower grades in the common schools, whether they be in city, town, or country. In thousands of rural schools, and often in town and village grades, the teacher is an immature and inadequately trained boy or girl without the gift of teaching, in the work for the meager pay, and without love for the children or ambition for the school. Nothing else is to be expected; and we have no right to criticize teachers or pupils because results are unsatisfactory. There never will be any improvement till we criticize ourselves a bit, and assimilate for use that portion of educational gospel which gives the place of chief honor to the children—the little children —and their education.

The chief problems of education are from the high school down, and not from the high school up. Below the high school, and not in it and beyond it, are to be settled finally the scope

and character of the education for the majority of our fellow-citizens. In the grades will be determined in some degree their quality as men and Americans. It is a tremendous problem which as yet we have not done much toward solving. This much is certain: the duty of the hour calls for a development downward rather than upward in the public-school system. There may be something to say for the six-year high school, but it is little as compared with the call of the children in the lower grades. When they are reasonably well provided for, it will be time to talk and plan for added years in the high-school course. Development upward in the public-school system is an interesting question, but is purely academic when considered in relation to the needs in the schools below. I have nothing to say against advanced high-school development as an abstract proposition; but practically we are not ready for it, whatever may be said of the proposition one way or the other. The demand of the hour is for improvement of the schools we now have—high schools, and especially the schools below them.

If the state is to have a chance at its future citizens, it must take it when they are children. Only a small percentage of them reaches the high school; a still smaller percentage reaches the colleges. There are more than 25,000,000 children in this country between the ages of five and fourteen. Set this number over against the number in high schools, and the difference is appalling. Still more appalling is the fact that not one-half of the number is counted as attendant at the schools below high-school grade. Thirty millions or more of the people of this country are bread-winners and work with their hands chiefly. The common school in country and town must provide all the education they can hope for, if indeed they hope for any. But it is the business of society, through the medium of the state, to bring down to them education of such value and quality that they will hope for it, and find in it a way of approach to the practical life they are to live. We are not doing our duty by the children. In view of these simple but astounding platitudes, it seems strange that someone who has insight and vision has not recognized the implicit demands that economic principles and

genuine patriotism are making—leaving out of sight all other motives—that educational legislation, to provide larger opportunities, is needed at the bottom more than at the top. We have many problems to deal with in this country, but none that approaches in importance this one, because this is fundamental to all the great problems. It is the problem of problems. If we deal with it adequately, there is hope that we shall be able to manage the others.

The magnitude of the problem is so great that private benefactions could not deal with it. It is the problem of the state and the nation, and hence your problem and mine. Since it is so, the responsibility that rests upon society in relation to it is not to be shifted, even if it were possible, upon others. Private beneficence, as has been wisely suggested before this association, in individual cases might serve as a spur to the public conscience, but it could never meet the social need or discharge the social obligation. It would indeed be a sorry day for the state if it should have reason to assume that its delinquencies might be made good by the benefactions of private individuals.

The duty of the state toward higher education is not so inclusive nor so insistent as that toward elementary education. It has discharged its duty better toward higher education, perhaps because it is a simpler duty and one much easier to deal with. The state has worked as the patron of education inversely to the real needs of the people. The state university is its most notable achievement, the high school is next in order, the common schools bring up the rear. The state university in the Middle West has achieved its place of distinction as an institution that meets in a noteworthy way the real needs of the people, because there have been leaders with initiative and ability to press its claims; in some similar degree, though after a long interval, the high school has had the advantage of the same sort of support. For the common schools there has been no organized or definitely continued advocacy of any kind, the result being that the provisions for them, good and generous enough for the time when they were made, have been left to take care of themselves. The state deserves the highest praise for its intelli-

gent treatment of the problem of higher education. There is still much for it to do in that direction, but there should be no delay in taking up, with the same careful and detailed consideration, the common-school problem. The condition now existing illustrates almost a total lack of adjustment between the common school and present-day needs. And this lack of adjustment is chiefly due to the fact that the public-school system is governed by laws that have been practically unchanged for years, while society that needs the schools has been growing with the rapid growth of this age, and deserves, even if it is not conscious of the fact, a response from the schools that they are not able to give. The response to the call of the people has been through the institutions of higher learning—a response which is only for the select few.

The state universities actually do respond to public demands. They have specialists to study and report movements in education and in public life. They hold to the past, but are quick to detect special and local needs. They have a forward look. Their organization is such that with reasonable quickness they can adjust themselves to the constantly growing requirements of the people. These same ideals, which the state university aims to realize in its work, are also the ideals of every standard institution of higher learning. They are the ideals of education a democracy should aim to realize. Educational leaders understand this, and these same ideals are common matters of conversation and discussion in educational conferences and assemblies. But it is a notable fact that these discussions relate themselves to the higher institutions, and very rarely, or never, include the grade school and the rural school. The ideal that has in some measure realized itself in the higher institution is needed—sorely needed—as a revivifying force in the lower school. Are we alive to this fact? Do we know that the ideals of public service at work in the higher must also have a chance in the lower schools? The call of democracy today—the most insistent, the most urgent call—is just this, that the lower grades in our education system be given a chance to realize in their sphere of public service the same ideals that are effective in the higher

institutions. Incidentally, the achievement of such a result, even in a very imperfect way, would be the greatest service that could be conferred upon the higher institutions. It would give them an educational constituency, larger in numbers, more able in material resources, and more intelligent and appreciative of educational and social needs than it is now. What greater benefits are there for an institution of higher learning?

School legislation in the early days (I have in mind particularly the Middle West) was directed almost wholly to the more external and material phases of the question. This is natural, for the first question in organizing a system involving great expense is the question of financial support. In a new state the school fund, the method of its collection and apportionment, provision for its enlargement, teachers' examinations, and questions of like character, consume all the time and interest that can be given to school legislation. Action is based upon the generally accepted belief that the common school is an essential constituent of a democratic society and should be generously provided for. The results secured by legislation, prompted by this noble sentiment, are magnificent in Iowa and in the western states generally, so far as the material basis for the development of an educational system is concerned. The trouble is, we have not in our educational product got on very rapidly. There has been much school legislation, but the equipment for the school is not very different from that which our fathers knew. Nor have the spirit and method changed as much as we should expect from the growth in resources and the larger demands of the people. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, with a little grammar, still form the staple intellectual diet for multitudes of young people in the common schools. They are taught practically as they were a generation ago, as subjects which the pupil must take as he might take medicine, with this difference, that there is no attempt to make a diagnosis of the youth's individual needs.

Measured by the rapid changes and advances in general social movements, the common-school system is in a state of standstill. This is chiefly due to the fact that, having given a

material basis for a system of schools, we have not proceeded seriously and insistently to the more difficult questions of educational policy. We have not provided for adequate co-ordination and integration of all the interests involved; we have not given sufficient care to the personnel of the administrative officers; we have not recognized the importance of adjustability and plasticity in the system to meet enlarging demands as they arise; we have not given to our supervising officers sufficient opportunity for personal initiative in controlling and directing school affairs; we have not felt deeply enough that the chief end of our system is the care of some hundreds of thousands of boys and girls who will never see a high school. It is no easy task to deal with problems such as these, but we must deal with them.

The fact that there are such problems is no criticism of the public system. It has done an incalculable service for the people. But there are duties still to perform which are beyond it, through no fault of the system, but through fault of us who are the citizens of this and other commonwealths. The time has come for a new spirit and a new initiative in common-school education; when some of the personal and creative energy that belongs to present-day society must be put into it. On the splendid material basis, which has been maturing for more than a half-century, we must superadd the elements necessary to make the school system a more vital part of the public life. We are under obligations to do this, and we are under contract to the world to do it. If we do not do it, we are contributing to those elements of confusion and discontent which are likely to prove a menace to the permanency of our free institutions.

We have based our faith in the permanency of our institutions on the capacity of the people to govern themselves and direct aright affairs of state. The task we undertook in the infancy of our government is vastly greater than we anticipated. The difficulties of the task are multiplying with unexpected rapidity. Our appreciation of the difficulties is not growing with equal rapidity. Aliens are coming at the rate of a million a year to become citizens of this republic for good or ill. We have entered into tacit contract with ourselves and with them that

they shall have the rights of free citizenship. The nations of the earth are looking at us and are wondering what is to become of our experiment in democracy; and we may well ask ourselves whether it is possible for us to give the newcomers adjustment to the ideals we cherish and make them one with ourselves. I believe we can do it. Whether we shall do it or not depends chiefly upon our willingness to study the problem of elementary education with a view to making, as far as possible, our education one of adjustment to practical life, and one of participation in it. More directly is it a problem of education because the real problem of the immigrant does not begin with the first, but with the second, generation. Hence the solution of the problem centers in the rural and grade schools. It is not a new problem the immigrant brings us; he simply emphasizes the old problem—the problem we have in connection with our own children.

All that has been said points to the boy and girl. Discuss any educational proposition, and sooner or later it reaches the boy and girl—the school, "only a lot of boys and girls." There is found the basal ultimate in educational theory and practice. Future school legislation, without question, will give greater emphasis to the boy and girl, and greater stress to enactments that look to their development as a real part of the community and state. We may not expect to legislate adequately till we see in the needs and capacities of the boy and girl the purpose and the end of the whole process of public-school education. If we consider their needs and capacities, and provide ways and means to treat them, we of course improve their value as social, political, and economic units in a free commonwealth. We do it for foreign-born and native-born alike. Education of this sort for all the boys and girls is a political and an economic necessity. It is the first duty of the state to provide it as a means of self-preservation. This would seem to be self-evident, but what legislative body in this country has emphasized with any insistence the patriotic and the economic motives for school legislation? The careful development of the dormant economic value in the millions of school children who will never have the oppor-

tunity for higher education would bring immeasurable spiritual and material returns to society.

We have need to consider the fact that permanent success and stability in our public affairs are not so much—by no means so much—dependent upon tariff legislation, the regulation of inequalities, nor upon any symptomatic treatment of special irregularities, as they are dependent upon the treatment of the fundamental problems of practical life—patriotism, economic value, and the like—which center in the public school. Germany has grasped this fact, and is the first European nation to give it practical illustration in a large way. She is securing industrial and commercial supremacy among the European nations because she has been developing the long unused and neglected economic values belonging to her youth. Her educational reports and her trade reports are complementary documents which show without question the source of her rapidly enlarging sphere of influence. The Kaiser, early in his reign, insisted on this new motive in educational legislation, and nothing better than this illustrates the sagacity and wisdom of the man.

Japan was quick to recognize the same fact, and the results achieved by her have taught a lesson to the whole world. She did not have many men. She understood that her success in war and in peace would depend on developing to the fullest extent the values of those she did have. She won in her struggle with Russia, and in her struggle for recognition among the nations, on this practical but fundamental principle.

The best way to increase the agricultural value of a state, or the commercial value, or any value, is to increase the value of the youth who are to be its citizens, by giving them acquaintance with their own powers and with the life and the materials of the life they are to live. It is easier to give them only reading, writing, and ciphering, and to let them go with the contribution these subjects can make; it is easier and cheaper, but it is not so wise nor profitable. It would cost much money to instruct the child in such a way that he would come into real touch with the life he is going to live; but, however much it might cost, it would not be expensive, because the returns would

be more than commensurate with the expenditure of time and pains and money. If we give the children an interest in things, and give them adjustment to their environment, social and material, large results are sure to follow, both material and spiritual. This is spiritual law. This is economic law. Finally, it is education—education in the only true sense.

A youth is made up of a bundle of sympathies and native powers calling for cultivation. The chief object of elementary education should be to bring the youth to consciousness that these qualities are within him, and that they are there for enlargement and use. There is little to show that our system of elementary education has taken this very simple proposition into account. The educational food we are giving the child is good so far as it goes, but the method of giving it does not aim at the fundamental educative process.

What the child calls for are both subjects and method through which there may take place some constructive development of his latent powers. He can't be educated in any real sense without it. A child's education and a child's reformation, if he happens to be an irresponsible, take place along exactly similar lines. There is no hope that we shall improve a child on the street by telling him he has done something wrong and that he must not do it again. It wouldn't help the matter much if he were arrested and put in jail. The only hope for such a lad is a place where he may have a chance to practice and realize right principles of conduct, a place where the good in him is called into play by sympathy and encouragement. He must have a place where he can work out his own redemption under suitable guidance. The same is true of any boy in the school. The giving of a book and a teacher to explain rules will not insure educational results. The child should have the chance to reproduce, so far as possible, for himself, and to participate in the educating process. The school—rural school or grade school in town—should be a shop, a garden, a laboratory, should be a place where boys and girls come in contact with life and form personal acquaintance with the rules and principles which govern it. In short, there should be a creative atmosphere in the school

from the lowest grades up. Manual training and domestic science are lines of educational activity which afford suggestions for use in all grades of school work.

I know a school in Iowa where the idea I am trying to emphasize has had beautiful illustration. A large number of triangular spaces in the town, due to an unusual manner of platting, have been taken in hand by grade pupils. Shrubbery and flowers have been planted, and places that were at one time very unsightly are now the beauty spots of the town. The children are enthusiastic about it, and have learned much about plants, seeds, and soils. Incidentally they have acquired a sense of beauty and order. This is education of the highest value. It comprehends the whole individual—gives information, excites interest, gives vital contact with the outer world, and develops a sense of social obligation. It epitomizes elementary education as it ought to be.

The value of any subject, or any method whatever, is directly proportional to the use that can be made of it in developing what is within the child and bringing it into a vital relationship with the world without. Looked at from this point of view our educational system, especially as realized in the grades and rural schools, is in its elementary stages. As yet we have merely announced our intention of educating our children, without appreciating the magnitude of the task and its ever insistent demands. A schoolhouse at every "cross roads," and a large school fund, are only suggestions of possibilities. With these provided, we are just ready to ask: What are we to do with the boy and girl in the schoolhouse? They are alive—they require immediate and constant attention. There is a teacher—alive also. Now, the consideration we secure for these living parts of the system will determine wholly whether it was worth our while to build the schoolhouse and vote a tax for its support. The difficulties of our educational problem begin here—and end here—in the living pupil and in the teacher. They are difficulties that will always be with us. They are not to be disposed of by a single act of legislation. The elements of these difficulties are variable and require provision for some continuous process

of legislation, to be followed up by most careful and competent administration.

A forward movement in the interests of our educational system with especial reference to schools below the high school, particularly rural and village schools, should include emphasis on the following points:

1. An improvement of the plant—schoolyard, building, and equipment—with a view to the reasonable comfort and convenience of the pupils. There should be an appeal through an improved plant to the pupil's sense of order and beauty.

2. A determined effort to secure greater permanency and efficiency in the teaching force. The teacher's value will determine the value of every other element in the school. The teacher is a medium of communication between state and pupil, and is to be "philosopher, guide, and friend." A right adjustment between the child and his environment, social and material, is not to be expected unless the teachers have a reasonably good understanding of the obligations resting upon them. Teachers of this type are to be had in larger numbers, if the state will ask for them and provide a reasonable support. The teachers in our common schools sorely need the stimulus of encouragement and appreciation. There would be a quick response to such stimulus. A demand for greater efficiency would quickly secure greater efficiency.

3. Opportunity for practical acquaintance with the material and social environment. The boy and girl that grow up in the country should have an intelligent acquaintance with trees, birds, plants, and soils. There should be some provision for instruction in such subjects, and others of local importance. There should also be provision for elementary instruction in questions of social obligation and relationship. An attempt in each case should be made to prepare the child for the life he is to live as a fellow-citizen with many others, and as an active contributor to the needs of his community and state.

4. At various places in every county, perhaps in every township, there should be a consolidated school. This school should give what no single school could give, should have a richer course

of study, and larger opportunities for establishing connections between school-work and life-work. This arrangement is practical, and is an established success in several states, particularly in Indiana.

5. The status of the county superintendent should be improved. The office is one of immense possibilities, and under adequate legislative protection will have great practical value in the development of an improved school system.

6. A closer supervision by the state of all the schools, including, of course, the high school.

7. The appointment of an educational commission by the legislature to review all school legislation, to unify it, and to propose ways and means of improvement, with a view to placing the schools into close touch with life.

In conclusion, it cannot be overemphasized that the school is not to be the special interest of the teacher alone. It is also the special interest of every citizen who has the welfare of the nation at heart and appreciates the meaning of the common school in our social and national life. In the hope that we who are here may do something to focus attention upon this part of our educational problem, I have made these remarks. Apropos are the words of Walt Whitman:

> And you, America,
> Cast you the real reckoning of your present?
> The lights and shadows of your future, good or evil?
> To girlhood, boyhood, look, the teacher and the school.

CHILDREN'S DRAMATIC INTEREST AND HOW THIS MAY BE UTILIZED IN EDUCATION

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The education of the child, as usually planned, sets at naught every natural tendency, and seeks to impose upon him certain tasks, the skilful performance of which the human race has decided shall be the standard for the educated man. The right of the race to decide its standard of excellence none will deny, but the will of the child is a matter which we are forced to consider, in bringing about the completion of this aim, if the end is a realization of the intention. For ages he has resisted the effort to educate him, and, in spite of free schools and truancy laws, a large proportion of the whole has eagerly answered the first call of the world of work and has joyfully left behind both school and books. Even now, in spite of our boasted progress in psychology and pedagogy, the fact remains that the average school is hateful and distasteful to those who should be its most zealous patrons.

Now, if the call of the world of industry is so alluring to the child that it is a successful rival to the schools, we must concede that in it the child finds something that his nature demands and which the school does not furnish. To me the answer to the situation lies in our outrage of every natural instinct of the child. Interest is born of instinct, but, instead of building our educational principles upon this fact as upon a rock, we put down, by force of arms, every attempt of the child to assert himself as heredity intends that he shall. The world outside of the school gives him freedom to follow those natural bents of the race. He is not considered a vessel of wrath and a favorite abiding-place of the evil one. Instead, he becomes a member of the great world-society, and is at once a giver and a receiver. He has a motive and he sees an outcome.

If we were to consider all of the instincts or impulses and their value in education, a book of many volumes might be

written. To me belongs the task of setting forth briefly the claims of one impulse—the natural tendency of the child to engage in the dramatic. The date of the first play can no more be set than can the date of that first sound that heralded the birth of language. We only know that the play is as old as communication, and helped man to express his embryonic thoughts long before words had been wrested out of chaotic gutteralness. When prehistoric man had been successful in the chase or in conflict with his enemy, his savage mind naturally delighted in communicating this fact to others. At first language was entirely lacking, and only through pantomime and gesture was the transmission of his thought possible. After this first dramatic production of his act for the purpose of communication, we can easily conceive how the mere pleasure of the doing might incite him to a repetition of the performance. Since imitation is so deeply rooted an impulse, even in that prehistoric era, we can imagine the children, or even the elders, finding a joy in the imitation of this presentation, until it became a set play in which several might take a part the more successfully to work out the real act. Finally, as language and invention grew, changes that added to the pleasure of the act were made, and at last original performances were invented whose aim was the indulgence of more pleasure than mere repetition of a once-performed act could give.

Thus we see that the first drama had a social origin and grew out of imitation. Today man's dramatic interest is so vital a pressure that to gratify it he annually spends millions of dollars, and a great play makes for public sentiment and influences ethical relations as all the sermons of the world cannot do.

The child is born with a strong dramatic impulse which shows signs of development at a very early age. He plays horse as soon as he can chirp, and there is no surer guide to the growth of a child's experience than the diversity of his dramatic performances, for he reproduces everything that with any force presents itself to his consciousness. He is father, and his sister is mother. They set up housekeeping, and she attends to the home affairs while he goes to the office. Or perhaps the girl's doll is ill, and

the boy is the doctor and visits the sick baby, who, he is assured, has a fever and a bad cough. He feels its pulse, examines its tongue, and prescribes with all the gravity of the regular family physician. A little three-year-old girl, who gives me many happy hours, and in whom the dramatic impulse is especially strong, invades my room almost every evening, and, after choosing a leading part for herself, assigns to me the other rôle necessary to the production of a drama. Storekeeper, as with most children, is a favorite, and, standing behind a chair, which serves as a counter, she assumes all the airs and expressions of the man who wishes to sell. I come to buy, and I am often hard-put to keep up my end of the play with anything like the spirit which she puts into her part. Taking a trip is another favorite of the little lady. Sometimes we go to Pike's Peak, where some of her friends have been. Sometimes we go to Chicago, where she has visited many times; but wherever we go *she* goes, and I am merely the conductor who punches her ticket and calls the stations. For the child naturally accepts no minor parts in his drama. Impulse is strong within him, and he has not yet learned to control it. In fact, our first memories of things are many times not of the thing in its reality, but as we played it. I have no memory of a funeral which preceded the death and burial of one of my dolls, and yet such an experience must in some way have preceded this act. What I do remember is that for several days my doll died with great frequency, and was buried with all the pomp attendant upon a funeral, in which the hearse was my brother's express wagon, and decorations were quite as likely to be weeds as flowers.

The dramatic impulse being admitted, the question of the methods by which we can take advantage of it in our training of children naturally presents itself to the teacher. To me the most convincing argument in favor of its full development lies in the attitude of the girl to her doll. This is not entirely an exhibition of mother-instinct, as we are so often assured. The mother-instinct truly asserts itself in the care and love which the mother bestows upon the child. The little girl plays at being a mother, and by the exercise of her dramatic impulse gains an immediate

pleasure, and at the same time reinforces her maternal instinct, and prepares herself more fully for the real work of motherhood.

If the dramatic exercise of the mother-instinct is a preparation for the real condition of motherhood, it follows that the dramatic exercise of the ethical will tend to produce correct ethical relations, and that the dramatic exercise of judgments in life-situations will prepare the child for actual living as will no other means at our disposal. The curriculum of every school, dry and bare as it sometimes appears to be, presents living material for dramatization. Reading, geography, and history afford endless opportunities for work in this direction. Perhaps the discussion of some plays recently written and produced by fifth-grade pupils under my charge will prove the most practical means of arriving at a way in which this work may be managed, and of reaching a summary of the benefits derived from it.

Part of the work of one class in history this autumn was a study of the Pilgrims. The children have no textbook, and the work of presenting the subject falls entirely upon the teacher. This is usually done by word of mouth, and it takes a skilful story-teller to keep awake a class of boys and girls, by the mere oral presentation of a series of events which happened three hundred years ago. For several days the recital of the woes of the Pilgrims went on, and at intervals the children were called upon to repeat the tale as adorned by the teacher in charge. Those who had good memories and inactive imaginations managed to pick up a few facts. The others were blasé. I suggested that we write a play about the Pilgrims, and that we present it for their parents and friends. There was a quick awakening. We could not decide then what part of the history of the Pilgrims we would take as the subject of our play, as we had studied but a small portion of it. You can see that there was an immediate incentive for further investigation, especially as the subject was to be decided by the children. I have never seen more interest displayed by a class than that which those children possessed. They ransacked the library for books, and even dry autobiographies were eagerly read and passed around. The teacher was no longer a reciter of a monologue. There were end-men and middle-men, but mostly

men who wanted to talk all the time. The subject-matter was soon covered, and by a majority vote the children decided that the title of their play should be "The Treaty between Massasoit and the Pilgrims." We then considered the things that we ought to know in order to write and present the play—accurate historical facts, Pilgrim customs, dress, topography of the region about Plymouth, etc. Everyone became a zealous student. Pictures were brought out that had not seen the light of day for years. The news of the proposed presentation of the play soon spread to the other rooms in the school, and, as the actual historical facts would permit of a greater number of children taking part than the total enrolment of our room, applications for a place in the cast came in from children in the other grades. In fact, when the play was ready for presentation, I was obliged to allow initial performances to be given to the other children in the school, to their great satisfaction and the glory of the fifth grade.

Part of the plan was to encourage free oral expression, and a considerable portion of the play was written with this object in view. A pupil suggested what he thought would happen in the given situation, who would speak, and what he would say. This the teacher wrote upon the blackboard. Other pupils gave their thoughts, and these also were placed upon the board. Then we considered the merits of each thought presented. Often there were spirited discussions as to why a certain thing was not good or why something else was better. No effort was necessary to induce them to talk. In fact, the difficulty lay in knowing the point at which it was best to stop and take up another step. Finally, a decision as to which one we would use was decided by a majority of the class. Then we turned our attention to the language of the sentences, and it was corrected by general discussion. When a written lesson seemed desirable, often the entire class was sent to the blackboard, and each one wrote what he thought would come next in the drama. Then the class considered each one, and acted upon it as previously described. At other times each member of the class wrote out his thought upon paper and handed it to the teacher. The correction and discussion of the work was then taken up in various ways. It was slow work.

The play is short, taking perhaps less than ten minutes to present it when finally written. We were nearly three weeks writing it, but it was worth the time. The number of judgments which the children formed cannot be estimated, while the value of the spirit of fair consideration of a subject is beyond estimation. Added to the logical and ethical results mentioned, they had an excellent knowledge of the Pilgrims, their imaginations had been exercised, and yet had been held within bounds by the strictly historical, and their oral and written expression showed vast improvement.

When the work of writing the play was completed, the children decided who were best fitted to take the parts of the principal characters, and such was their interest in its successful presentation that I did not see the slightest evidence of a wish for personal aggrandizement. The remaining pupils in the room all became either Indians or Pilgrims without speaking parts, so that every pupil in the grade took part in its presentation, although but one class was engaged in the writing of the play. The immediate socializing influence of this fact is too evident to admit of discussion.

The play opens in Governor Carver's house. The governor is sitting at a table writing. Miles Standish enters and addresses him:

"Governor Carver, there were two Indians on Watson's Hill a while ago, brandishing their weapons as if for war. They have disappeared now, but I believe they mean to come again with others."

Governor Carver: "Beat the drums and call our men together."

(Miles Standish retires a moment, and the drum is heard outside. Then the Pilgrim men, women, and children pour into the governor's office. The women appear to be frightened, but the men form around Miles Standish. As they come in, some conversation takes place.)

Mr. Warren: "What is all this fuss about?"

Mr. Hopkins: "Captain Standish saw Indians on Watson's Hill, and he thinks they mean war."

(By this time the men have quietly formed around Miles Standish, and he addresses them.)

Captain Standish: "Two Indians stood on Watson's Hill a while ago, and I think others will come. (Indians appear on top of the hill.) There are a half hundred of them now, and I believe they mean to fight. Come! Let us drive them away!"

(Squanto is seen approaching.)

William Brewster: "Wait! Squanto comes. They may mean to be friendly."

(Squanto enters the room and addresses the governor.)

Squanto: "The great chief Massasoit and his brother Quadequina want to smoke the pipe of peace with the pale faces."

Governor Carver: "Go, tell Massasoit and his brother Quadequina to bring to us the pipe of peace, and we will smoke with them."

(While Squanto is gone the women express their fears, and the men reassure them.)

Mrs. White: "I am so frightened."

Mary Chilton: "I am afraid they will scalp us."

Mr. Winslow: "Don't be afraid. We will take care of you."

(Squanto returns.)

Squanto: "The great chief Massasoit will not come down into the valley, but wishes one of the pale faces to go up on the hill and talk to him about the land which they have taken from one of his vassal tribes."

Governor Carver: "What! Is Massasoit afraid?"

Squanto: "Massasoit fears the white man's thunder-and-lightning stick."

Governor Carver: "The great chief need not fear us. One of us will go to the top of the hill and talk to him. Who will offer to go?"

Mr. Winslow: "I volunteer to go!"

Mr. Bradford: "I offer to go!"

John Alden: "Let me go!"

Mr. White: "Let the governor decide."

Governor Carver: "Mr. Winslow may go. Get some presents for Massasoit and Quadequina."

(Priscilla goes to her house and comes back.)

Priscilla: "Mr. Winslow, here is some biscuit and butter to take to Quadequina."

Captain Standish: "Here are two skins that you may give to the chief Massasoit."

(Gilbert Winslow hands a package to his father.)

Mr. Winslow: "What is it, son?"

Gilbert Winslow: "A knife, an ear-ring, and a copper necklace."

(Mr. Winslow accepts the package and goes up Watson's Hill with Squanto. Massasoit and twenty warriors return with Squanto to the brook. Squanto takes six warriors into the village to be kept as hostages until Mr. Winslow returns. Gilbert Winslow sees Squanto returning without Mr. Winslow and runs forward to meet him.)

Gilbert Winslow: "Where is my father, Squanto?"

Squanto: "Massasoit left your father upon the hill with Quadequina. These six warriors will stay with you until Mr. Winslow returns."

Captain Standish: "Mr. Winslow is worth more than a thousand Indians!"

Squanto: "Massasoit waits across the brook. He wishes to talk to the governor."

Governor Carver: "Eaton and Crakstone, take these Indians and give them something to eat. Captain Standish, go meet Massasoit and bring him into the village. Mrs. White, will you please see that the house is ready for the Indian king?"

Mrs. White: "I shall be glad to do it. Remember Allerton and Elizabeth Tilley, will you help me?"

Elizabeth Tilley: "Yes, I will help you."

Remember Allerton: "I will help you."

(The women busy themselves preparing the room, talking vigorously. To the beating of the drum Miles Standish brings Massasoit and his warriors into the house and seats the chief. Governor Carver enters attended by the military band and an escort of Pilgrim men. Massasoit stands up, and Governor Carver kisses his hand.)

Governor Carver: "Welcome, King Massasoit."

(Both sit down, and Massasoit offers the governor his pipe. The governor smokes and returns it.)

Governor Carver: "We rejoice to see the great chief, and wish to be his friends. We promise that if our men take anything from your tribe we will give it back to you. If any Indians attack your tribe and it is an unjust war, we will help you."

Massasoit: "I promise that I will help you in war with any other Indian tribe, and if any of my people take anything from you I will make them give it back, and I will punish anyone who does anything to the white people. When we come into Plymouth we will leave our weapons outside. We will live as brothers."

(The pipe of peace is then smoked, and Miles Standish escorts the Indians to the brook.)

As Thanksgiving approached, the school was asked to consider some form of entertainment as our part of a general plan that had been arranged. They unanimously decided to write another play. This time they chose as their subject "The First Thanksgiving." The method of writing it was much the same as that already described, and the play was quite as entertaining.

In preparing the plays for stage presentation little practicing was necessary. By the time the writing of the play was completed almost everyone had it memorized. The expression of the parts was natural and spirited. It was *their play; they* had written it; and I am sure that Shakespeare never trod the boards with more pride in his own production than they felt in theirs.

In conclusion, I wish to lay emphasis upon the ethical side of the question of a subject for a play. In the formative period no child should play the part of a villain. We become by doing, and his part should be that of an ennobling character. Massasoit and his Indians were kind to the Pilgrims. The sentiments expressed by him are just and friendly ones, and the attitude of the Pilgrims toward the Indians was sincere and kindly. I would have no child take the part of a blood-thirsty Indian. The dramatic feeling in children is too strong to be directed unwisely. Used with proper aims, the child through its influence is helped to develop morally and intellectually toward the perfection of social existence.

THE TEACHING OF THE CONTINENT OF EURASIA

ZONIA BABER

The following outline is intended primarily for the use of students in the College of Education who are preparing to teach. It is meant to be used only as suggestive in the direction of study. Since it is impossible for a student to cover the entire subject, even in a superficial way, during a course of three months, opportunity is given each student to choose regions or problems in which he is most interested. This secures a more intensive study of fewer subjects and training in the organization and presentation of certain material. In order that the students may acquire freedom in drawing as an aid in teaching, each is required, as he presents his report, to draw upon the blackboard relief maps and type scenes of landscapes of the region under consideration.

The reports of the class, when related, should give a general view of the entire continent. The problems which arise with individual students or teacher are brought before the entire class for discussion.

After the students have had sufficient experience in dealing with the sources of the geographic knowledge—the field, books, charts, maps, globes, reliefs, pictures, and the laboratories—opportunity is given for discussion of the methods of using the various materials to find, if possible, that which is educative and that which is waste. With a similar motive they discuss the effect upon thinking of the various forms of expression—modeling, painting, drawing, writing, and speech.

The last few weeks of the quarter are given to observation, discussion, and teaching of some aspects of the subject to the sixth grade in the Elementary School. This is for the purpose of studying the response of children to given material.

OUTLINE OF THE COURSE IN THE STUDY OF EURASIA

Eurasia is studied as the home of the three great civilizations which have persisted to the present time, and which today are the great teachers of the rest of mankind—European, Indian, and Chino-Japanese.

The geographic influences which have produced and preserved these civilizations are traced as far as can be discovered. This necessitates a special study of the peninsula of Europe and its attendant islands, China and associated islands, India and its related regions.

The remainder of the continent is considered as related to these three important regions.

EURASIA

I. What we owe to Eurasia. What we have given Eurasia.

II. LOCATION: Terrestrially; in relation to other continents.
Extent.—Influence of great latitudinal extent upon the development of a country. Influence of great longitudinal extent upon its growth. Is there a preferred continental size?
Shape.—Compare with that of other continents. Is there a preferred continental shape?
Coast-line.—Compare coast-line with that of the other continents. Value of indented coast-line. Give reasons. Cause of indented coast-lines.

III. TOPOGRAPHY: Location, extent, and altitude of the mountains, plateaus, and plains. Is the arrangement of mountains and plains most advantageous for man's occupation? Suggest better distribution.

IV. DRAINAGE: Great continental slopes. Locate Arctic, Pacific, Atlantic, Indian, and inland drainage systems. What effect have the drainage systems had upon the development of the continent? What river valleys of Eurasia have been "cradles" of early civilization? Why? Which are the most important for irrigation? If the rivers of the Arctic system flowed south instead of north,

would their value to man be increased or diminished? Why? What would be the effect if the inland drainage became oceanic? Advantage and disadvantage of inland drainage?

V. CLIMATE: Trace isotherms from 80° to — 50° for winter. Give reasons for position. Trace isotherms from 80° to 40° for summer. Give reasons for change. Effect of the movement of isotherms 32° over the continent. Prevailing winds; monsoons. Cause of monsoons. Locate areas of great rainfall; of little precipitation. Account for conditions.

VI. VEGETATION: Locate and give approximate area of tundra, forest, prairie or steppes, and desert regions. Give reasons for position of each. General effects of each.

VII. PEOPLE: Locate regions where important civilizations have developed and persisted down to the present time. Give some conditions favorable to the growth of the European civilization; to the Indian and its attendant civilization; to the Chinese and its tributary civilizations. General conditions favorable or unfavorable to the development of the remainder of the continent.

VIII. Model relief of Eurasia in sand. Draw relief on blackboard. Write general description of Eurasia adapted to sixth grade.

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More detailed outline—

III. TOPOGRAPHY.

1. *Mountain ranges.*—Appearance, location, approximate extent and height of Himalaya, Kara Korum, Kuen Lun, Thian Shan, Altai, Yablonoi, Stanovoi, Khingan, Hindu Kush, Elburz, Caucasus, Balkan, Carpathian, Transylvanian Alps, Dinaric Alps, Alps, Pyrenees, Apennines, Ural.

   Locate ranges which are never free from snow. Give reasons. Causes of differences in appearances of sky-lines.

   Regions of beautiful scenery; effect upon settlement. Influence of the above-named ranges upon neighboring regions—drainage, climate, animals, plants, people.

   Formation of mountain passes; location of important passes.

   Origin of mountain ranges.

2. *Volcanoes.*—Locate regions of volcanic activity in Eurasia. Regions where earthquakes have been important agents of geographical control.

3. *Expression.*—Draw characteristic sky-lines of important mountain ranges in Eurasia. Characteristic mountain scenes.

   Draw map locating ranges named above. Write

description of a selected type mountain range adapted to the sixth grade.

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4. *Plateaus.*—Location, appearance, approximate extent, altitude, and general characteristics of Pamir, Tibet, Gobi, Deccan, Iran, Arabia, Balkan, Scandinavia, Iberia, Switzerland. Topography: hills, mountains, plains, valleys. Influence of plateaus on adjacent

regions. If the great extent of plateaus had been located in the northern part of the continent, what would have been the probable result? What is the effect of high plateaus upon the development of its inhabitants—physical conditions, industries, commerce, homes, government; upon climate; upon drainage?

Expression.—Draw type scenes of plateaus. Draw map showing plateaus and mountains.

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5. *Plains of Eurasia.*—Great continental plain; plains of China and Manchuria, Indo-Gangetic, Tigro-Euphrates, Hungarian. Location; approximate extent. Compare with plains of other continents. Position with reference to highlands. Effect of size and location of the great plain of Eurasia upon the development of Europe; of Asia.

   Effect of riparian plains on Eurasian history. Which have contributed most to European culture? Which have apparently retarded European development? Formation of riparian plains. Origin of the great plain. Forces which have in recent past shaped, and are at present shaping, the plains.

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A. *Glaciated area.*—Excursion to Stony Island, Glencoe, and Cary, to see phenomena of glaciation. Extent; appearance; value or detriment of glacial period to present Europeans. Work done by continental glacier.

REFERENCES

Glaciated region—

Reclus, *Europe* (*Earth and Its Inhabitants*), Vol. V, "Russia," p. 186; "Region of Great Lakes (Finland)," p. 209; "Ural Mountains," p. 344; "Scandinavia," p. 87.

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Prestwich, *Geology*, "The Glacial Deposits of Europe," Vol. II, p. 455.

B. *Black-earth region.*—Position and approximate extent of. Characteristics of. Value for agricultural purposes. Effect upon the development of Russia. Origin.

REFERENCES

Black earth ("chernoziom")—

Dokuchaev, *The Russian Steppes: A Study of the Soil of Russia, Its Past and Present* (Public Library).

Reclus, *The Earth*, p. 67.

Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. V, p. 269.

Mill, *International Geography*, pp. 402, 405.

Herbertson, *Europe.*

Geikie, *Prehistoric Europe*, p. 243.

C. *Steppes.*—Appearance winter and summer. Cause of; industrial aspects. Probable future.

REFERENCES

Steppes—

Brehm, *From North Pole to Equator:* "Asiatic Steppes and Their Fauna," pp. 86–120, 568–71.

Hedin, *Through Asia*, Vol. I, pp. 36–46.

Wright, *Asiatic Russia*, pp. 539–69.

Stadling, *Through Siberia*, p. 23.

Herbertson, *Asia*, pp. 7–11. See also Brehm, *From North Pole to Equator.*

Chisholm, *Compendium of Europe*, Vol. I, p. 635.

Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. V, p. 269.

Seebohm, "The North Polar Basin—Steppes," *Geographical Journal*, Vol. II, p. 337.

D. *Deserts.*—Location; approximate extent; appearance of rocky, stony, sandy, clayey areas. Cause

of each. Probable effect of the large desert areas upon the development of European civilization; of Asiatic. Value of deserts. Detriment of deserts to neighboring regions. Probable future of deserts. *Excursion.*—Dune Park, to study sand dunes.

REFERENCES

Deserts—

Hedin, *Through Asia;* see index.
Hedin, *Central Asia and Tibet,* Vol. I, pp. 63–442; Vol. II, pp. 3–190.
Dingelstedt, "Irrigation, Natural and Artificial in Samarkand and Bokhara," *Scottish Geographical Magazine,* Vol. IV (1888), pp. 642–54.
Kropotkin, "The Desiccation of Eurasia," *Geographical Journal,* p. 722.
Herbertson, *Man and His Work:* "The Hot Desert," pp. 32–37.
Annenkoff, "The Physical Condition of Central Asia in Relation to Russian Occupation," *Scottish Geographical Magazine,* Vol. VII (1891), pp. 75–79; "Löss," p. 77.
Reclus, *The Earth,* pp. 70–89.
Reclus, *Asia,* Vol. II, p. 64.
Cornish, "On the Formation of Sand Dunes," *Geographical Journal,* Vol. IX (1897), pp. 278–309.

E. *Forest regions.*—Approximate extent; appearance in winter and in summer. Cause of forest belt. Products of forest. Value of great forest belt to remainder of continent. Do forests invite or retard the development of civilization in the tree-covered areas? Probable future of the great Siberian "Taiga." What determines the limit of forests?

REFERENCES

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Keane, *Compendium,* "Taiga," p. 205.
Stadling, *Through Siberia,* "Taiga," pp. 38–223.
Nordenskiöld, *The Voyage of the "Vega,"* "Taiga," p. 121.
LeRoy-Beaulieu, *The Awakening of the East,* "Forest," p. 6.
Herbertson, *Asia:* "The Forest Zone," pp. 4–7.
Wallace, *Russia* (1905): "In the Northern Forest," pp. 24–33.
Brehm, *From North Pole to Equator,* "Forests and Sports of Siberia," pp. 120–68, 571–73.
Schimper, *Plant Geography,* pp. 166–73.
Seebohm, "The North Polar Basin," *Geographical Journal,* Vol. II, "Forest," pp. 336, 337.

F. *Tundra.*—Location; approximate extent; appearance of stony and swampy tundra in winter; in

summer. Appearance of the aurora borealis. Condition of plant and animal life. Life of inhabitants; industries. Effect of the introduction of the reindeer upon the habits of the people. Probable effect of the exhaustion of game and ivory upon the people of northern Asia.

REFERENCES

Tundra—

Brehm, *From North Pole to Equator:* "Tundra and Its Life," pp. 63–86, 566, 567.
Herbertson, *Man and His Work*, pp. 7–15.
Herbertson, *Asia*, p. 384.
Herbertson, *Europe*, pp. 30, 31.
Nordenskiöld, *Voyage of the "Vega,"* p. 132.
Stadling, *Through Siberia:* "Across the Tundra," pp. 201–47.
Nansen, *Farthest North*, pp. 69–77.
Reclus, *Asia*, Vol. I, p. 311.
Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. V, p. 34.
Reclus, *The Earth*, p. 69.
Seebohm, "The North Polar Basin," *Geographical Journal*, Vol. II, "Tundra," pp. 335, 336.
Seebohm, *Siberia in Asia.*
Schimper, *Plant Geography.*

Expression.—Draw type scenes of steppe, desert, black-earth region, glaciated area, forest, tundra. Draw map indicating area of each. Write description of one region selected from the above list adapted to sixth grade.

G. *Drainage of Great Plain.*—Compare inland drainage with area of oceanic drainage. Advantage and disadvantage of inland drainage to the region drained; to adjacent areas? If the Volga flowed into the Black Sea instead of into the Caspian Sea what would be the advantage or disadvantage to Russia? What would be the probable effect upon Russia in Europe and Asia if the waters of the Caspian should rise so as to flow into the Black Sea?

Characteristics of the Arctic system of river basins. Effect of the constantly frozen areas upon the

erosive history of the rivers. What is the effect of the debouchere of rivers within the Arctic regions upon the work of the rivers? Value of the Arctic system of rivers as highways. Present commercial use. Probable future use.

Value of the Atlantic system for commercial purposes. Which have been of greatest importance?

REFERENCES

Arctic rivers—

Stadling, *Through Siberia.*
Kropotkin, "Siberia," *Encyclopaedia Britannica.*
Mill, *International Geography*, pp. 426, 399–401.
Reclus, *Asia*, Vol. I, pp. 329–93 (Ob. Lena, Yenisei).
Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. V, p. 341 (lands draining into the Arctic).
Herbertson, *Asia*, pp. 11 (Ob. River), 12 (Yenisei River), 63 (Angara River and Lake Baikal).
Seebohm, "The North Polar Basin," *Geographical Journal*, Vol. II, pp. 331–50.
Wright, *Asiatic Russia*, pp. 75–77, 492, 493, 103 (Lena River).

Inland drainage system—

Chisholm, *Compendium of Europe:* "Aral and Caspian Depression," Vol. I, p. 639.
Reclus, *The Earth:* "Caspian Sea," pp. 335–40.
Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. I, pp. 363–420.
Wright, *Asiatic Russia:* "Aral and Caspian Depression," Vol. I, pp. 25–54.
Mill, *International Geography*, pp. 390, 395–97.
Hedin, *From Lake Aral to Tashkend*, pp. 47–65.
Herbertson, *Europe*, p. 43 (Volga).

Atlantic drainage—

Universal Cyclopaedia; see "Rhine," "Elbe," etc.
International Cyclopaedia; see "Rhine," "Elbe," etc.
Encyclopaedia Britannica: "Europe," "Rivers."
Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. V, p. 256.
Chisholm, *Compendium of Europe*, Vol. I, pp. 383–92, 482–89, 650.

H. *People.*—Division of the Great Plain by various nations. Large landowners; small landed nations. Would it be better if all the nations in the plains were confederated? Why? Advantage of large land areas to a nation; disadvantage. Which nations possess the best agricultural part of the plain? Why best? Prevailing crops. Forest products. Hunting regions; products of the hunt.

Region of dense population—cause of; of sparse population—cause of. Important cities. Account for location. Give brief story of the history of Russia in Europe and Asia, showing geographic influences

I. *Trans-Siberian Rairoad.*—Location; length; reason for location. Influence upon Russia in Europe; on Siberia, China, Korea, Japan; on the United States. If another trans-Asiatic railroad should be built, where would it probably be located? Why?

REFERENCES

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Stadling, *Through Siberia*, pp. 273–83.
Beverage, *Russian Advance*, pp. 68–81.
Norman, *All the Russias*, p. 102.
Lynch, *The Path of Empire*, p. 193.
Singleton, *Russia Described by Great Writers*, p. 223.
Beaulieu, *The Awakening of the East*, pp. 64, 71.

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Mackinder, *Britain and the British Seas* (1902).
Hull, *Contribution to the Physical Geography of the British Isles* (1882).
Jukes-Brown, *The Building of the British Islands.*
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Herbertson, *Europe*, pp. 212–54.
Guerber, *How to Prepare for Europe*, pp. 91–100.
Hare, *North East France; South East France* (1896); *South West France; North West France* (1904).
Taine, *Journeys through France.*

Netherlands—

Partsch, *Central Europe*, 298–312.
Universal Cyclopaedia; see "Netherlands."
Sime, *Geography of Europe:* "Low Countries," pp. 249–70.
Picturesque World, Vol. I, pp. 304–27.
Mill, *International Geography*, pp. 216–23.
Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. III, pp. 450–58.
Gannet, Garrison, and Houston, *Commercial Geography;* see index.
Griffis, *The American in Holland.*
Baedeker, *Belgium and Holland* (1905).
Hare, *Sketches in Holland, Belgium, the Rhine*, etc.
Guerber, *How to Prepare for Europe* (1906): "Belgium and Holland," pp. 256–85.

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Germany—

Partsch, *Central Europe:* "The North German Lowlands and German Seas," pp. 112, 241–98.
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Reclus, *Europe*, Vol. III, pp. 157–225.
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Siberia—

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Brehm, *From North Pole to Equator:* "A Journey in Siberia," pp. 390–416, 510, 540; "Forests and Sports," pp. 120–68.
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EAST EURASIA CIVILIZATION

CHINA, JAPAN, KOREA

JAPANESE EMPIRE

EXCURSION: Visit Nickerson Collection, Art Institute. Japanese stores.

I. LOCATION: Effect of great latitudinal extent. Relation to China, Korea, America.

II. AREA: Arable and untillable regions. Effect of small amount of arable land upon agriculture; upon other industries.

III. NATURE OF COAST-LINE: Effect upon fishing industry. Position of fishing industry in Japan.

IV. TOPOGRAPHY: Location of moutains, rivers, and plains in Saghalin, Kurile, Yesso—main island or Hondo, Kiu-

shu, Shikoku, Luchu, Formosa. Brief story of formation of the islands.

V. CLIMATE: Prevailing winds. Temperature winter and summer. Rainfall winter and summer; snowfall. Time and region of typhoons. Compare with climate of Spain; with that of British Isles.

VI. VEGETATION: Extent of forest land; compare forests of Formosa with forest of Yesso. Forest products—woods, camphor, lacquer, wax. Describe process of obtaining camphor, and lacquer.

Agriculture: Rice, millet, barley, tea, cotton. Describe culture.

VII. INDUSTRIES: See above. Other industries: silk culture; manufacture of lacquered ware; cloisonné; ceramics; paper; colored prints.

VIII. ARCHITECTURE: Domestic; religious—Shinto, Buddhist. Influences which have affected architecture—building material; earthquakes; ideas from India and China. Adaptation of plastic arts and color to architecture.

IX. PEOPLE: Language; dress; government; schools. Location of principal cities; give reason for position. History—brief sketch of Japan's past. Effect upon Japan of the Russo-Japanese War. Probable future of Japan.

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Griffis, *The Mikado's Empire.*

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Younghusband, *On Short Leave to Japan.*
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Stead, *Japan by the Japanese:* "Agriculture," p. 413; "Seri-Culture," p. 415; "Rice," p. 418; "Tea," p. 421; "Forestry," p. 425; "Marine Products," p. 428; "Problems of Far East," p. 573.
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Hearn, *Out of the East.*
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Haton, "Destructive Earthquakes in Japan," *ibid.*, Vol. VI (1878), pp. 249–91.

ART

Dresser, *Japan.*
Gonse, *Japanese Art.*
Bing, *Artistic Japan.*
Strange, *The Color Prints of Japan.*
Anderson, *Description and Historic Catalogue of Japanese and Chinese Painting in the British Museum.*
Huish, *Japan and Its Art.*
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Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*, pp. 45–55.
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Griffis, "The Corean Origin of Japanese Art," *Century Magazine*, December, 1882.

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Murray, *Hand-Book.*
Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*, pp. 34–41.
Brunton, "Constructive Art of Japan—Relation to Earthquakes," *Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan* (1873).
Cawley, "Some Remarks on Constructions in Brick and Wood and Their Relative Suitability for Japan," *Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan*, Vol. VI (1878), pp. 291–317.

KOREA

Present Relation to Japan.

I. LOCATION: Advantage and disadvantage—climatically, politically.

II. AREA: Tillable land; coast-line; difference between eastern and western coast-line; location of good harbors. Influence of tides.

III. TOPOGRAPHY: Position of highlands and lowlands; advantage and disadvantage in development of people. Rivers, use as highways; for irrigation—Yalu, Tumen, Han, Nak Tong. Compare topographies of Korea and Italy.

IV. CLIMATE: Prevailing winds; rainfall, temperature winter and summer. Compare with climate of Italy; reason for differences.

V. PEOPLE: Dress; language; education; government. Present state of art and architecture. Cause of decadence. Industries: Agriculture; principal crops; manner of cultivation. Cities: Manner of building; walls; streets; houses; lights; water. Seoul, Chemulpo, Mukpo, Fusan, Gensan, Hi Chin. Reasons for position. Result to Korea of the Russo-Japanese War. Brief story of Korea's past.

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Bird-Bishop, *Korea and Her Neighbors.*
Bishop-Mill, *International Geography,* pp. 542–44.
Lowell, *Chosen* (1886).
Gilmore, *Korea from Its Capital* (1893).
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Richthofen, "China, Japan and Korea," *Geographical Journal,* Vol. IV (1894), pp. 556–61.
Hulbert, *The Passing of Korea* (1906).

CHINESE EMPIRE

EXCURSION: Visit Nickerson Collection, Art Institute, and Chinese stores.

I. LOCATION: On the continent of Eurasia; the relation to

other great nations. Advantages and disadvantages of position.

II. SIZE AND SHAPE: Influence of the size of the country on its development. Advantage and disadvantage of size.

III. TOPOGRAPHY:

1. *Plateaus.*—Tibet, Pamir, Gobi. Value to China. Characteristics of country and inhabitants.
2. *Mountains.*—Himalaya, Kuenlun, Altyn Tagh, Tian Shan, Altai, Yablonoi, Khingan, Tsin-Ling-Shan. Influence of altitude, position, and extent upon the climate, products, and people. Aesthetic value. Influence of the highlands upon the lowlands of the empire.
3. *Plains of China.*—Origin; relation to the Pei-Ho, Hoang-ho, Yang-tse Rivers. Relation of the great plain to Chinese civilization.
4. *Rivers.*—Yang-tse-Kiang, Hoang-ho, Si-Kiang, Pei-Ho, Tarim, Amur. Influence of the rivers on industrial and commercial development of China. Should the Hoang-Ho be considered a blessing or a curse to the Chinese empire? Story of its shifting its course in 1887–89. Rate of land-building in Gulf of Pechili.

IV. CLIMATE:

1. *Winds.*—Prevailing direction in summer, in winter. Influence of high plateau on the direction of the wind; influence of the deserts on the direction of the wind. Season and track of typhoons.
2. *Rain.*—Account for summer rains. Influence of fringing islands. Parts of the empire liable to drought. Tension regions of rainfall.

V. SOIL:

1. *Loess region.*—Extent; theories of its origin; influence on agricultural development of China. Homes in loess. Influence on concentration of people.
2. *Red-earth region.*—Extent. Account for productivity.
3. *Alluvial plain.*—Formation; influence on agriculture;

influence on transportation; effect of the deserts on the soil of adjacent countries.

VI. PRODUCTS:

1. *Agriculture.*—National standing of farmers; encouragement given by the emperor and mandarins; manner of cultivating the soil. Rice, cotton, tea, indigo, millet, cane, poppies.
2. *Forests.*—Account for small amount of forest products.
3. *Minerals and metals.*—Known extent of coal, gold, silver, copper. Probable influence of the development of coal mines in China.
4. *Manufactories.*—Home manufactures; how carried on; influence on education and commercial life of the people; introduction of factories; probable influence on China of change from home industries to factories.

VII. PEOPLE:

1. *Race.*—Appearance; dress. Account for high commercial standing of Chinese in the Orient; influence of religion on the development of the people.
2. *Location of principal cities.*—Peking, Tientsen, Cheefu, Shanghai, Hangchau, Hong Kong, Canton, Nanking, Hankow. Give reason for location. Plan of building cities; pavements; domestic and religious architecture; means of procuring water, light, and heat; transportation facilities in north and south China. Account for primitive conditions in transportation, home and city comforts.
3. *Education.*—Describe a Chinese school. Describe examination in Peking or Canton. Influence of education on government; on commerce.
4. *History.*—Short story of China's past. What constitutes China's greatness? What causes China's weakness? What can the Occident learn from the Orient? What justification is there for England's control of Kowloon, Hong Kong? Germany's occupation of Kiao Chow? France's claim to Hianan? What was the influence of the Chinese-Japanese War? What

was the influence of the Russo-Japanese War upon China? What do you predict for the future of China? Movement toward introduction of occidental culture. *Expression.*—Model relief map of China in sand. Draw relief map. Draw typical landscape of China. Write a plan for teaching China in the sixth grade.

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China—

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Milne, "Journey across Europe and Asia;" Part II, "Across Mongolia to Peking;" Part III, "Peking to Tientsen," *Asiatic Society of Japan,* Vol. VII (1888).
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INDO-CHINA

EXCURSION: Visit South Park Conservatory for tropical vegetation.

I. CONTINENTAL POSITION: Relation to India; to China. Advantages or disadvantages of position.

II. AREA: Compare with size of China and India.

III. TOPOGRAPHY: Relation of mountains to plains; to climatic conditions; to rivers. Formation of plains; value agriculturally. Rivers: Characteristics of Irriwaddi; Mekong, Menam, Salwin, and Red Rivers; value as highways; for irrigation. Compare the topography of the peninsula of Indo-China with that of other peninsulas of Eurasia.

IV. CLIMATE: Temperature; account for condition. Cause of season of rainfall. Effect of climate upon condition of people.

V. PRODUCTS: Manner of obtaining principal products. Principal imports.

VI. PEOPLE: Relation to Chinese; to Malays. Appearance; language; religion.

VII. GOVERNMENT: Area dominated by France, by England; independent.

A. *French Indo-China.*—Location of Annam, Tonquin, Cochin-China, Cambodia. Topographic and climatic condition. Principal native products.

How is the region governed? Effect upon the people of French occupation; advantageous or otherwise from the point of view of the European; from the point of view of Indo-Chinese.

Compare density of population with that of the United States. Principal cities: Saigon, Touran, Hanoi, Haiphong. Location and characteristics of? Language of French Indo-China. Religion.

B. *British Indo-China.*—Burma: Upper Burma, Lower Burma; Straits Settlements. Location; topographic and climatic conditions. Native products.

Nature of British rule. From the standpoint of the British; from that of the Burmese.

Characteristics of the Burmese people; appearance; dress; habits of life; education; religion.

Cities: Advantage of location of Rangoon; Mandalay; Moulmein; Singapore; Penang or George Town; Malacca. Characteristics of Burmese cities; of cities of the Straits Settlements. Architecture—domestic and religious.

C. *Independent Indo-China.*—Siam: Compare the topography, climate, products, cities, and people with those of the other Indo-Chinese. Relation of the Siamese to their present ruler. Would it be advantageous or otherwise to Siam if it were governed by some European power? If by Japan? How can Siam maintain her independence?

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INDIA AND CEYLON

I. LOCATION: In relation to China; to Russia; to other neighboring countries. Value of position from a commercial standpoint.

II. SIZE: Compare with China; with Europe; with United States. Coast-line: Entire; few harbors. Influences of entire coast-line?

III. TOPOGRAPHY:

1. *Mountains.*—Position of Himalaya, Hindu Kush, Kara Korum, Sulaiman, Vindhya, Aravalli Hills, Western and Eastern Ghats, Satpura Hills. Influence of the mountains upon the development of India. Value to the administrative Englishman. Influence of Khyber, Kuram, Gomul, Bolan passes on the history of India. Formation of the passes.
2. *Plains.*—Indo-Gangetic, Carnatic, Northern Circirs, Malabar plains, and plains of Deccan plateau—position of; influence of these plains on India's progress.
3. *Rivers.*—Characteristics of Ganges, Indus, Brahmaputra, Nerbudda, Kistna, Godavari, Tapti, Cauvery, Uses of for irrigation; as highways.

IV. CLIMATE: Trace isothermal line from 80° to 60° for winter and summer. Explain changes. Locate regions of rainfall above 100 in.; from 50 in. to 100 in.; 30 in. to

50 in.; 10 in. to 30 in.; below 10 in. Give reasons for location. Describe rainy season; dry season. Describe monsoons; cause of? Influence of climate upon natives; upon Europeans.

V. GEOLOGY: Areas of alluvial plains; Deccan basalt; Archaean rocks; influence of each upon landscape; upon agriculture, soil, water. Alluvial plains—irrigation by rivers and wells. Archaean by tanks; basalt little or no irrigation. Give reasons.

VI. INDUSTRIES: Agriculture—principal crops; manufactures—principal native manufactures; cause of decadence of native art.

VII. PEOPLES: Number of languages spoken; appearance of different peoples. Education; religion; art; government. Architecture: domestic; religions—Buddhist, Jaina, Saracenic, Dravidian; characteristics of each.

What has been the value to the Indians of British occupation? What has been the detriment to the Indian of British occupation? Can Europeans permanently colonize in the tropics? What is to be the future of the Eurasian in India? What has been the value of India to England? What detriment to England?

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COMPARISON OF EUROPE, INDIA, CHINO-JAPAN

Compare the civilizations of Europe, India, China, and Japan. Appearance of people—stature, color. Habits; home; cities; agriculture; mining; stock-raising; manufacturing; fishing; commerce; art; government; education; religion.

What is the chief characteristic of European civilization? Of Indian? Of Chino-Japanese?

To what extent are the respective civilizations due to the geography of the regions? What have been the chief factors in geographic control? What are the present chief geographic

influences? What future do you predict for each civilization? Will the Occident greatly influence the Orient, or will the eastern civilization influence the western? When railroads make easy intercourse with the various parts of the continent, what changes do you predict? Is homogeneity of Eurasian civilizations desirable? Why?

What is our special oriental interest? What do you predict will be our position in the Orient in the future? Why?

How can the Occident and Orient come to a better understanding of each other?

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PEDAGOGIC ASPECTS.—What does the study of geography do for the child mentally and morally?

How can geography be taught to result in the development of initiative, observation, reason, judgment, memory, imagination? Can one faculty of the mind be cultivated alone? What is the value of field-work aside from the information gained? What are the disadvantages and limitations of field-work? How and when should laboratories be used?

What is the influence upon geographic imagery of drawing maps and landscapes? Of painting landscapes? Of modeling maps? Of oral descriptions? Which form of expression is least difficult for sixth-grade pupils? Most difficult?

When would you use the various forms of expression in teaching geography? Why? How can maps be made to perform their proper function as symbols? What is the effect of memorizing maps?

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CLAY-WORK IN THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

HARRIET JOOR
Instructor in Clay-Modeling

In the Elementary School the work in clay is always closely related to the other work in each grade, so that all forms of the student's activities may be brought into harmony.

The pottery is, in every case, built up by coils from a working drawing made by the pupil, and the decoration is incised in the wet clay, or modeled in very low relief; the whole piece being then covered with an opaque glaze. Very rarely, and then only in the higher grades, the design is painted on with a clay of a different color, or with slip in which color has been mixed.

The motives for the applied decoration are chosen in correlation with the pupil's school-work: thus, when the children of the third grade were studying Norse history, they decorated their bowls with arrangements of Norse shields, spears, bows, or writhing dragons.

Clay, as a medium, appeals most strongly to the younger children. It is so sensitive and pliable a material that it does not tire the smallest or weakest fingers; while the sturdiest little worker learns by degrees to control his nervous energy when he realizes that too great pressure destroys his work. That his fingers are his servants, and must learn to obey his will and work gently, even when most eager and excited, is one of the truths that the smallest clay-pupil learns very early; though his untutored muscles may be slow in rendering the obedience.

This year the pupils of the first grade began their work in clay by modeling farm animals. Later in the spring, the horses and cows and chickens will stock a miniature farm in the school garden. The same children have made in the wood-work department the barns for this farm. The animals were modeled from plaster casts and pictures; the children were questioned as to the

animals they saw on their trips to and from the school, and were asked to note the relative sizes of the different creatures, and the proportion the head and legs (as well as any peculiar or beautiful feature, as, for instance, the splendid chest of the horse) bore to the body. In November their Christmas work was begun: very simple bowl shapes to hold nuts or short-stemmed flowers, the only decoration being an opaque glaze. In January, in connection with their study of Eskimo life, these children modeled Eskimo houses in clay; then little fur-wrapped Eskimo children, with their sleds and dogs.

The second grade, early in the school year, in connection with its study of the food-supply of mankind and its transportation, modeled fruits and vegetables in clay, then the trains, wagons, and boats used in the transportation of food-stuffs. In November it began the Christmas gifts: violet vases, low fruit bowls, candlesticks of very simple design, and teapot tiles, round and square. For decoration, some simple arrangement of leaf or berry was incised in the clay; the tiles being painted in underglaze colors; the bowls and candlesticks being simply color-glazed.

The third grade, which has been studying the story of the *Odyssey,* is to model during the winter quarter a series of tiles in low relief, telling the history of Ulysses' wanderings. These tiles are afterward to be set in a frame above the black-board in the classroom.

The fourth grade devoted the earlier portion of the year to the making of vases and jardinères, using for decoration whatever plant-forms were found growing in the open at the time the jar was ready for the design: berries, seed-pods, and thorny sprays, such as could be seen in the parks and vacant squares, together with the few leaf-forms that still lingered with us. During this midwinter term the class is busy making tiles for a window-box for its classroom. These tiles are later to be joined by copper frames which the children are themselves making in the metal department.

The sixth grade has been busy with Greek history and Greek literature; and for its clay-work has studied the shapes of the

Greek vases, choosing, for decoration, motives from Greek borders. This class has had rich opportunity for the study of lines of simple dignity, and shapes of purest beauty.

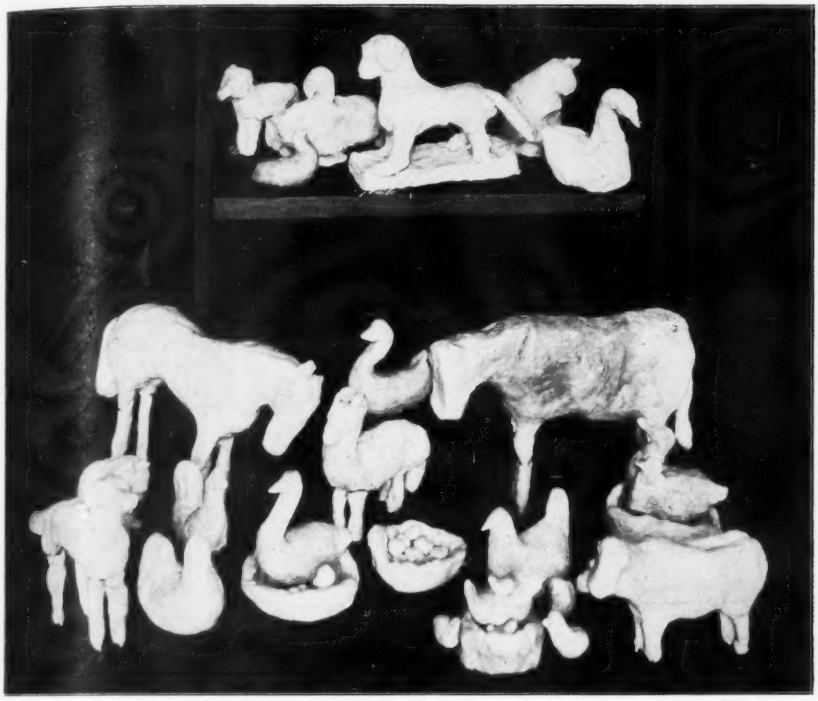
The eighth grade in its history work has been tracing the origin and development of chivalry; and in its clay-work in the spring quarter will illustrate this theme in simple compositions in low relief on rectangular placques.

The fifth and seventh grades have no clay-work during the present school-year.

In the lower grades no high degree of accuracy is expected; the chief aim being to awaken a sense of proportion, and train the inexperienced fingers to obey the child's will so that his artistic impulse may find expression.

But from the fourth grade, up to the eighth, not only is more accurate craftsmanship required, but the pupil is also led to note subtle differences in lines, and to feel the charm of harmoniously varied curves; while the sheer beauty of simple, lovely forms is more fully dwelt upon.

That there is in every soul an instinctive preference for those things that are enduringly beautiful is proved again and again by the fact that in spite of the distorted and unlovely creations with which, in this commercial age, we are all surrounded, the students usually choose vase-forms of simple dignity and grace. Sometimes there is revealed a rare sensitiveness to the charm of texture, or to the pure beauty of lovely shapes. One pupil in the sixth grade gives to the surface of her vases a certain veiled quality of delicately elusive charm; while, again and again, the finer quality of appreciation is revealed in an instinctive preference for the pure shape of the jar itself, which makes the worker shrink from cutting the line of the vase by any applied decoration whatever.



ANIMALS MODELED TO STOCK A MINIATURE FARM IN THE SCHOOL GARDEN
FIRST GRADE

CHRISTMAS GIFTS. SECOND GRADE

PLANT-FORM DECORATIONS. FOURTH GRADE

GREEK VASES MODELED IN CONNECTION WITH THE STUDY OF GREEK HISTORY AND LITERATURE. SIXTH GRADE

THE CO-OPERATION OF THE PARK COMMISSION AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS IN PLACING BIRD-HOUSES IN THE PARK TREES

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The careful pruning to which the trees of the Chicago parks are subjected makes them entirely too open for the birds to use as nesting-places. Comparatively few of the songbirds use the park trees, and so one must go entirely outside the city limits, into the brushy areas, in order to study the birds to any extent, or to hear their music during the nesting season. This condition, therefore, prevents many of the birds from ever visiting the parks in the numbers natural for this region, and many of those that visit us at all are here only during the most uninteresting period of their stay in this climate.

Many people have observed and deprecated the condition, and a few have done something in a small way to encourage the birds to build in their private yards by placing a few boxes up in the trees. Professor W. S. Jackman, of the School of Education Elementary School, had thought that it would be a good thing to get the school children of the city interested in this work, and agitated the question for a number of years. But it was not till the latter part of 1905 that an opportunity was found. Upon application to Superintendent Foster, of the South Park Commission, he was able to arrange for the beginning of the work to the extent of placing about three hundred wren and bluebird houses in Washington and Jackson Parks. The commission did its part well by purchasing the lumber and having it cut, and the pupils of the Elementary School finished the work. The experiment of getting the park superintendent and the children to co-operate in making the houses and placing them in the trees was entirely successful. The extent to which the

birds used the houses so generously provided for them, and the further extension of the movement, only remain for the future.

The spirit in which the children went into the work, from carrying the lumber to the fourth floor, to the more pleasant part of nailing the pieces together, could be nothing less than an inspiration to even the most pessimistic. There was no complaint about the kind of work to be done. When all the hammers were in use, the four or five boys who were left volunteered to bring up the several hundred pieces from the basement with as much eagerness as if they were nailing the pieces together into the finished home. The whole point with them seemed to be to have a hand in the enterprise.

SHEPHERD SONG

Words and melody by children of the fourth school year (Grade II) University Elementary School

1. The shep - herd watch - es his flock with care
2. He leads his flock to a past - ure green Where a
All thro' the day and night; His dog pro-tects them from
stream is flow - ing cold; And, when the sun sinks
dan - - ger, And barks with all his might.
down in the west, He drives them home to the fold.

EDITORIAL NOTES

At the meeting held in Chicago last fall, under the auspices of the School Board, to discuss ways and means of lessening truancy and delinquency, it was shown that the root causes were, in the main, three: the failure of home influence, need and want in the home, and a failure of the school to supply work which would appeal to a child as worth doing from his own point of view.

A little pamphlet issued in advance of this conference affords most interesting data on this question. It is entitled "An Intensive Study of the Causes of Truancy in Eight Chicago Public Schools, Including a Home Investigation of Eight Hundred Truant Children." The investigation was made by a Hull House worker, three members of the Visiting Nurse Association, and four members of the Compulsory Education Department of the School Board. The investigators hunted down every case of truancy, found its real cause, and relieved the cause as far as possible.

Some children were found who never had been in school, of ages ranging from eight to twelve years. There were others who had managed, through their parents' shrewdness, to evade the compulsory-education law by transferring from a public to a parochial school, and then dropping out. The summing-up of causes of absences in one school tells the story:

Indifferent parents	36
Poverty and ignorance of parents	21
Illness of child	57
Illness in family	14
Wilful truancy	15
Incorrigibles	2
Total	145

In the majority of cases of illness of the child himself it was found that the attention which could be given at school by the nurse was sufficient to enable him to stay. In other cases atten-

tion at home by the nurse reduced the period of his home-staying. Out of 209 children reported ill in one school, during the month of April, 156 were found ill, 13 were not found at all, and 40 were found to be well; while 107 children were cared for in school. These conditions are not unusual, and show plainly that the services of a trained nurse in school districts of this character are of great importance as a means of keeping a certain percentage of children in school.

School Pensions

Where families are too poor to pay for help in the home, and the child's labor is needed there, or when he is the only bread-winner, the recently proposed plan of founding scholarships for such cases seems to be the only way of keeping the child in school without causing greater hardship at home. This scholarship means that a sum equal to that which the child would otherwise earn is paid into the home during the time of his attendance at school. Here is another of the many ways in which surplus wealth may spend itself to the betterment of social conditions without pauperizing; for money spent in elementary aid to education can never pauperize. The following quotation from the report shows a case of extreme need:

Louis B.—This child of nine years, whose parents were dead, lived with his grandmother and grandfather, neither of whom could speak English. The grandfather, besides having lost an arm, was ill and unable to work; the grandmother helped the family by picking up coal and wood on the railroad tracks, and occasionally picking and selling dandelions. Though fairly strong, she was too unskilled to do any sort of profitable work. The boy, the only other member of the family, paid the rent and supported his grandparents by the sale of newspapers. This he did entirely outside of school hours, having been absent only one day during the whole year, and this day he went with his grandmother to interpret for her while she was trying to get a job picking rags on Canal Street. Louis finishes the fourth grade this year. They lived in one rear room, for which they paid two and one-half dollars a month, and which was in fair sanitary condition. It is needless to say that all the members of the family were without sufficient clothing to keep them warm and clean. What clothes the boy had were always in good repair, being generously covered with patches of different colors. He wore nothing under his little coat, not even a shirt. In the more prosperous days the family had owned a white table-cloth, which was cut up into kerchiefs to be worn around the neck of the boy to conceal the absence of the shirt. This is not

cited as a case of school neglect, as the boy was doing well in school and was anxious to keep on, his ambition being to finish the school. It is plain that such a household is on a most precarious footing, and that the boy's education and future usefulness are threatened by the hard work, the insufficient food and clothing, and general scantiness of his life. A school pension for this fatherless child should be obtained. In the meantime an arrangement has been made by which the monthly expenses for rent and coal have been met. The effects of his unchildlike struggle with poverty was shown by the boy's attitude toward the new suit of clothes which was provided for him. It was a gray suit, and he objected to the color, preferring a black one because it would save a new suit in case one of his grandparents should die, an event which he thought quite likely to happen, as they were both very old.

Where children are not sent to school because of the indifference of parents, personal visits, with patient explanation, are needed; where this will not suffice, and parents are still indifferent to the claims of the school, the law provides for prosecution and a fine, which is effective.

Cure for Truancy

Now we come to the last items on our list—"wilful truancy" and "incorrigibility;" and this is where the school itself must face the defections and assume at least a part of the responsibility. It is something of an anomaly to wait until children are sent to the Parental or Reform School before giving them the kind of work that makes school seem worth while to them. Wood-work, metal-work, designing, and all forms of shop-work furnish incentive and motive to the boy in Reform or Parental School. All children need these creative occupations; but it is the boy who is either more self-willed or with less good-will who balks at a course of study in which these occupations are left out. It is he, therefore, who eventually wins what he needs, whether he knows he needs it or not.

The more even-tempered, the less explosive, the better-balanced, obedient children follow the programme offered, and merely grow up through the school with less of initiative and less social training than they would have had if brought into contact with real problems and encouraged to face practical tasks. For it happens that we are so constituted that we find joy in achievements the worth of which we ourselves can measure.

Again to quote from the report:

One Kind of Backwardness

JIMMIE H.—A little Greek boy of eleven years, has reached the second grade only; both father and mother are educated people. They were married in Paris, where the father was employed by the Greek government. Misfortune brought the family to America. When we first visited them, the father had been ill four months, and the family was in a state of abject poverty, the mother having sold every salable article for herself and her boy. They lived in a basement of five rooms, three of which were dark. For these rooms they paid twelve dollars a month. The boy, Jimmie, is very backward in his school-work, for which, undoubtedly, poverty and insufficient food are partly responsible. He does not give the impression at home of being a stupid child, for he is very fond of playing with a little tool-chest, and will work all day long making things with his saw and hammer. *This ability he has no opportunity of utilizing in school, and there he ranks as a backward child.*

Laziness or Love of Work—Which?

The truant boys frankly owned for the most part a lack of interest in the school curriculum. In several instances they were found, not running the streets, but at home, and engaged in occupations which suggested the idea that, had they an opportunity for constructive work in school, they would not have turned into truants. One boy spent his time in doing carpentry of all kinds, another milked cows and cleaned the stable and yard, both without any compulsion from their parents. This tends to confirm the impression gained from former experiences with schoolboys that they shirk school for the sake of employments more interesting.

What a testimony this is to the uselessness of offering merely formal studies to children whose strongest bent is toward concrete activities! In our endeavor to make the curriculum so broad that they may be fitted for anything, are we fitting them for nothing? We say, and truly, that the elementary schools should not aim to train a wage-working class simply for artisan work; but it has been demonstrated again and again that children can get a general culture and instruction in the formal knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, by and with work on concrete problems. These problems are found in construction work of all sorts; and the virtue that is in them cannot be replaced by dealing with motiveless abstractions.

Indirect Methods

A good story comes from the principal of the Jewish Manual Training School. Mr. Milliken was sitting in his office one day, when an officer came in with a boy who had been sent there by the judge of the Juvenile Court. The boy had been an incorrigible truant, was in his fourteenth year, and would neither stay in school nor learn anything while there. The judge had decided to try the effectiveness of a large proportion of manual work. Doubtless he would have been surprised at the mode of initiation which followed:

"Well, so you don't like to go to school?"

"Nope."

"What's the matter with school?"

"Nothin' in it."

"Well, do you think you'll like this school?"

"Nope."

"Don't want to try it, eh?"

"Don't think I'll like it."

"What do you like to do?"

"Nothin'."

"Ever try to make anything?"

"Nope, never tried that."

"Well, my boy, you got here this morning on time, at least, and that's something. Now I'll tell you what I'll do. You need not do anything here if you don't want to. Just come here with me, and I'll show you a nice comfortable place where you can watch other people work. You'll like that, perhaps."

"Well you just bet I do—nothing better!"

So the head of the school picked up an easy office chair, carried it to the wood-working shop, and deposited it in a sunny corner. Here the boy was ensconced, with the injunction to make himself comfortable as long as he liked. The next day the principal came around to where he sat.

"Say, this is swell."

"You like that, do you?"

"Like it! Why, it's the softest thing I ever struck."

After having tasted the sweets of ease for three days, the boy was seized with a desire to make something that was wanted at home. This wish was indulged, and very soon it became necessary to do a little measuring. Measuring meant some arithmetical procedure, which came very toilsomely, but was achieved

finally with the assistance of the teacher of the arithmetic class. His immediate problem solved, the boy decided to go on in the arithmetic class. Another piece of work was begun in the shop, and in the course of this a book of designs and descriptions was offered to help him to make a choice of pattern. Obstacle no. two: he could not read well enough to find out what he wanted. His kind friend, the principal, again solicited a place for him in a reading-class. Again the boy decided to stay on in it after he was in possession of the particular printed facts that his shop-work called for. According to the chronicler of these events, it took the boy about three weeks to take upon himself a full scholastic curriculum in addition to his shop-work. All of which he kept up for the year of his stay, which ended in his going to work.

These revelations of the relation between truancy and a lack of constructive occupation have resulted in an experiment. This experiment is the establishment of industrial rooms for boys of the intermediate grades in some of the public schools. It is in these middle grades that the desire to roam and explore seems to conquer the boy's supposed thirst for knowledge. These rooms are not in any sense branches of a reform school, but are intended to offer such a combination of manual work and formal instruction as will make the bond stronger between the restive boy and the school. The success of this experiment will depend, not only on the inherent charm of productive work, but also on the sagacity and tact of the teachers assigned to this charge.

Another Experiment

The natural docility of girls, as compared with that of boys, keeps them from committing the same rebellious acts, and hence the powers that be are not forced to give them the same advantages—a condition which has gained for boys always much that would otherwise have never been thought of for them, and is now not thought of for the girls, because not demanded. But it is well to state right here that what is needed by the boys is quite as imperatively needed for the girls, and would lead to the desired result of making better-equipped and less frivolous women.

B. P.

BOOKS RECEIVED

AMERICAN BOOK CO., CHICAGO

Little Stories of Germany. By MAUDE BARROWS DUTTON. Preface by F. LOUIS SOLDAN. Cloth, 12mo. Illustrated. Pp. 192. $0.40.

Nature Study on the Farm. By CHARLES A. KEFFER. Cloth, 12mo. Illustrated. Pp. 154. $0.40.

Jingle Primer. By CLARA L. BROWN and CAROLYN S. BAILEY. Cloth, 12mo. Illustrated. Pp. 128. $0.30.

GINN & CO., CHICAGO

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